

Critical instrumentation issues for <2 mm resolution, high sensitivity brain PET*†

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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews critical developments in instrumentation necessary to achieve a resolution finer than 2 mm full-width at half-maximum (fwhm) in all three dimensions, a maximum event rate limited by patient dose rather than system dead time, and a detection sensitivity close to the theoretical limit.

INTRODUCTION

In the last 30 years, enormous advances have been made in the spatial resolution, detection sensitivity, and count rate capability of PET detectors [1-62]. In this paper we describe the critical instrumentation issues for future advances, which are necessary to improve the ability to study flow, metabolism, and neurochemistry in specific brain structures such as the sublayers of the cortex and important nuclei.

SPATIAL RESOLUTION

Detector size.

Until recently, the largest contribution to spatial resolution has been the detector size d . In the newer high resolution positron tomographs, where d is below 3 mm, other factors such as noncollinearity and light sharing statistics become important. However, efficiently stopping 511 keV photons in small crystals can be accomplished only by photoelectric absorption. Compton scattering, useful in large crystals, causes energy depositions in two or more small crystals typically 1-2 cm apart. High resolution PET needs detector materials with good stopping power, not good scattering power. This concept is illustrated in Figure 1, where the square of the ratio of photoelectric cross section to the sum of the photoelectric and Compton cross sections is plotted as a function of atomic number. This quantity is the coincident probability of photoelectric absorption of both 511 keV annihilation photons on the first interaction. All high resolution (<4 mm fwhm) positron tomographs use BGO ($\text{Bi}_4\text{Ge}_3\text{O}_{12}$) as the detector material [63-65].

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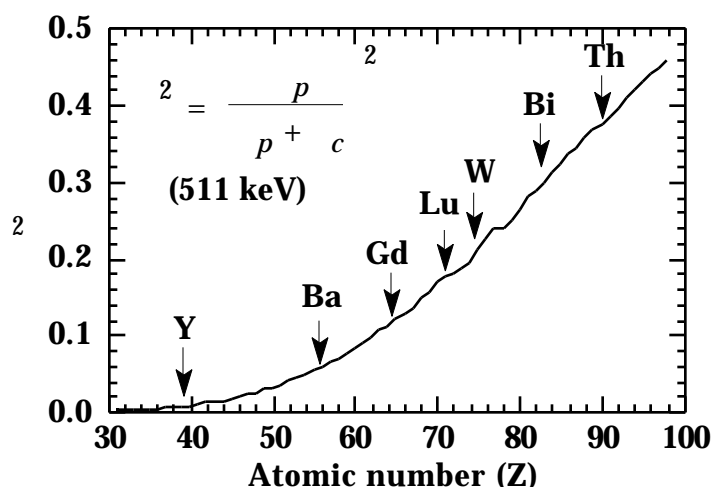


Figure 1.
Probability of coincident
photoelectric absorption
on the first interaction
for 511 keV photons in-
teracting with elements
of atomic number Z.

Noncollinearity.

Because the positrons do not come to a complete rest before annihilation, the two 511 keV annihilation photons are not emitted in exactly opposite directions [66]. The result is a Gaussian angular distribution with about 0.5° fwhm. At the center of the tomograph, this translates to a contribution of $0.0022D$, where D is the detector ring diameter.

Positron range.

Measurements of positron range have shown that this distribution consists of a central spike (fwhm < 0.5 mm) plus tails that can extend outward for several mm [40, 67-70]. See Table 1 for values of the fwhm, the fw(0.1)m, and the effective fwhm r for four important positron emitters. The fwhm and fw(0.1)m describe the narrow central region of the distribution, but not the tails. The rms reflects the statistical broadening of the entire range distribution. The quantity r is defined as $2.35 \times \text{rms}$ so that combining it in quadrature with other fwhm values is equivalent to combining all the rms values in quadrature and then multiplying by 2.35 to convert to an overall fwhm.

Table 1.

Positron range factors for four isotopes. From ref. [69].

Isotope	^{18}F	^{11}C	^{68}Ga	^{82}Rb
Max + energy (MeV)	0.64	0.96	1.90	3.35
fwhm (mm)	0.13	0.13	0.31	0.42
fw(0.1)m (mm)	0.38	0.39	1.6	1.9
$r = 2.35 \times \text{rms}$ (mm)	0.54	0.92	2.8	6.1

Individual photodetectors vs. light sharing photodetectors.

We have analyzed [71] published resolution measurements from 7 tomographs using crystals individually coupled to photodetectors [14, 24, 28, 29, 40, 49, 58] and 10 tomographs using light-sharing block detectors [41-43, 51-53, 56, 61, 62]. For the 7 individually coupled systems, the combined effects of detector crystal width, annihilation photon non-collinearity, source size, and the reconstruction process yield predictions that are slightly less than the reported resolutions (Figure 2). The additional factors required for agreement have an average of only 0.3 mm. The 10 block detector systems require additional factors that have an average of 2.0 mm fwhm, assumed to be due to a combination of Compton scatter in the block, statistical fluctuations in the photomultiplier tube signals, and imperfections in the block decoding scheme (Figure 3). Monte Carlo simulations show that positioning errors caused by Compton scatter within the block only account for only 0.9 mm of the degradation in resolution [71] .

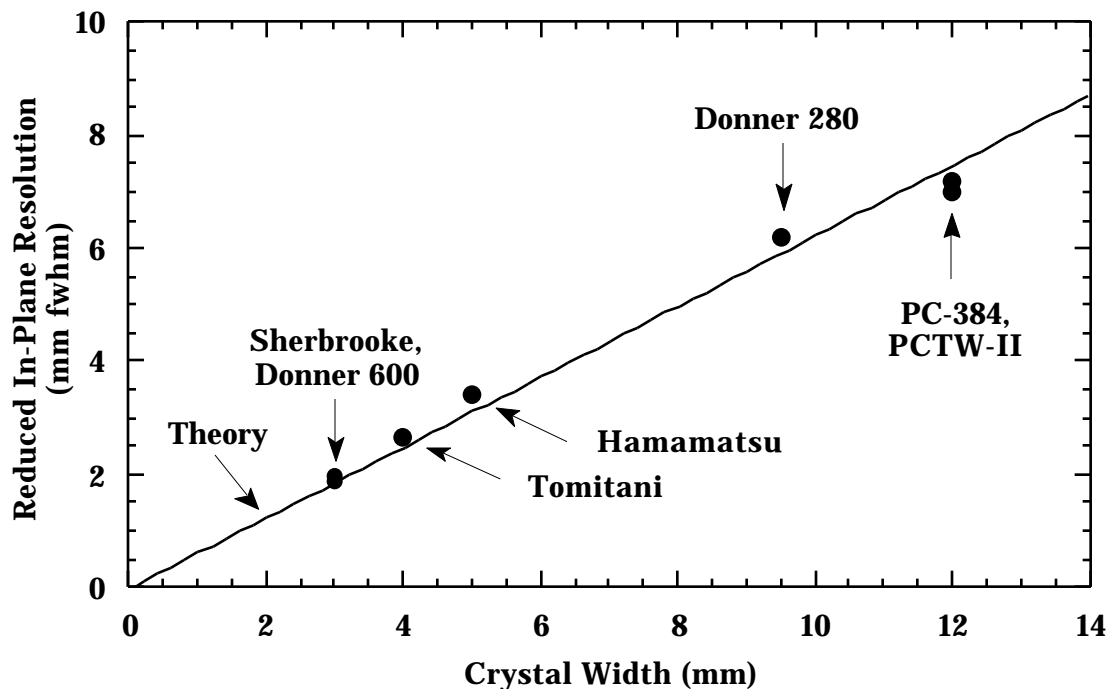


Figure 2.

In-plane resolution (fwhm mm) vs. crystal width for six positron tomographs with individual crystal- phototube coupling. Annihilation noncollinearity and source size contributions have been mathematically removed. Sherbrooke ref. [58]; Donner 600 ref. [40]; Tomitani ref. [29]; Hamamatsu ref. [49]; Donner 280 ref. [14]; PC-384 ref. [24]; PCTW-II ref. [28].

Combined formula for reconstructed image resolution.

Combining these factors, we describe the combined reconstructed image resolution , as influenced by detector size d , noncollinearity (through the detector array diameter D), the effective positron range r , and an additional factor

b (such as that contributed by a block decoding scheme). Table 2 shows that it is possible to achieve <2 mm resolution for ^{18}F , assuming that b is zero.

$$= 1.25 \sqrt{(d/2)^2 + (0.0022 D)^2 + r^2 + b^2}$$

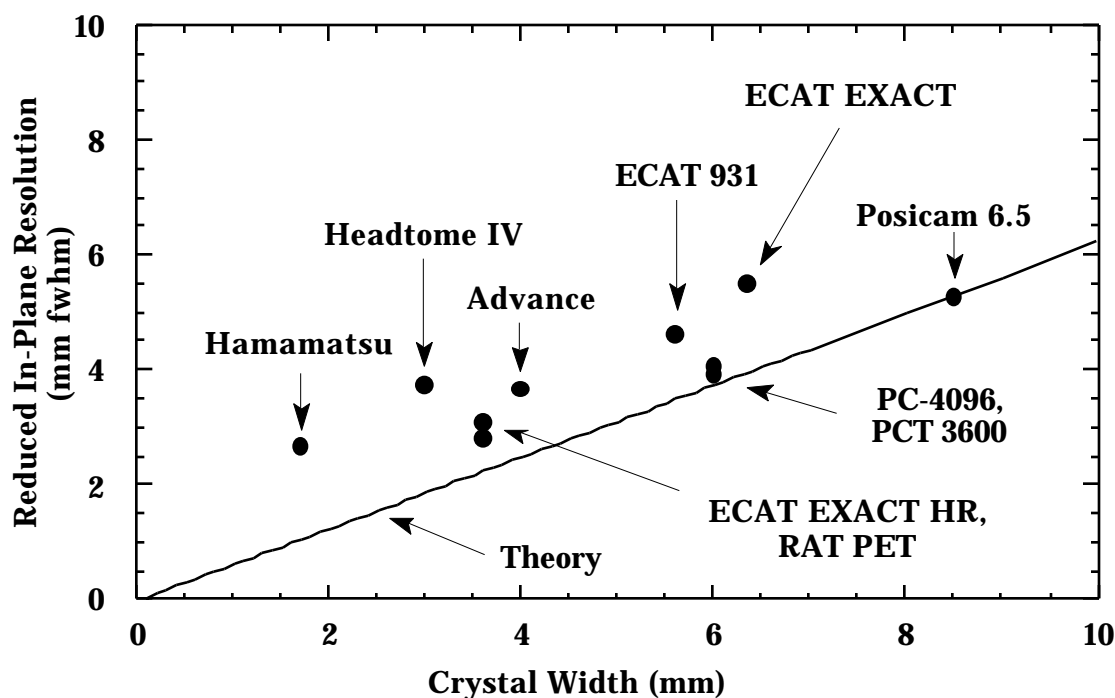


Figure 3.

In-plane resolution (fwhm mm) vs. crystal width for seven positron tomographs with block ratio crystal- phototube coupling. Annihilation noncollinearity and source size contributions have been mathematically removed. Hamamatsu ref. [52]; Headtome IV ref. [43]; ECAT EXACT HR ref. [61]; RAT PET ref. ???; Advance ref. [62]; ECAT 931 ref. [41]; PC-4096 ref. [42]; PCT 3600 ref. [53]; ECAT EXACT ref. [56]; Posicam 6.5 [51].

Table 2.

Reconstructed image resolution (fwhm mm) for several values of detector ring diameter D and detector size d , assuming ^{18}F ($r = 0.54$ mm) and individual coupling ($b = 0$).

d (mm) =	6	4	3	2	1.5	1
$D = 60$ cm	4.15	3.07	2.59	2.18	2.01	1.89
$D = 45$ cm	4.01	2.87	2.35	1.88	1.69	1.54
$D = 30$ cm	3.90	2.72	2.16	1.64	1.42	1.24
$D = 20$ cm	3.85	2.65	2.07	1.52	1.28	1.07

Improved scintillators.

The availability of a scintillator with a higher light output than BGO, such as LSO ($\text{Lu}_2(\text{SiO}_4)\text{O}:\text{Ce}$) [72-75] would improve the resolution of the light sharing block detector and may reduce the value of b in the spatial resolution equation above.

Depth of interaction measurement.

An additional issue in high resolution PET is detector penetration, which causes radial blurring at points distant from the central axis of the tomograph. This effect is eliminated most efficiently by measuring of the depth of interaction in the detector for determination of the true line of position [76-81]. In some cases, this would allow a reduction in the detector diameter, reducing the effect of noncollinearity on spatial resolution, and reduce the number of detectors, which would reduce the cost of the tomograph.

SENSITIVITY FACTORS**Detector stopping power.**

As described earlier, high detection sensitivity is enhanced by using dense detectors with high atomic number, particularly in high resolution tomographs employing small crystals.

Axial field of view and optimal inter-plane septa.

Detection sensitivity is also enhanced by using a large number of detector rings. Ideally, events should be accepted from the entire volume of interest. Removing or retracting the inter-plane septa can increase the angular acceptance, but also increases prompt scatter and random backgrounds. The tradeoffs, advantages, and disadvantages of retracting the septa have been the subject of work by a number of research groups [82-85]. While full inter-plane shielding is sub-optimal due to the low solid angle acceptance, the complete removal of the shielding may be sub-optimal due to the errors and statistical fluctuations caused by the prompt scatter and random backgrounds. In that case, additional work will be required to determine the optimum shielding configuration. Use of a luminous, dense scintillator such as LSO would permit scatter rejection on an event-by-event basis, as has been demonstrated for NaI(Tl) [38].

Maximum event rate capability.

The maximum event rate is limited fundamentally by the area and dead time of the individual detector modules but also can be limited by the speed of the coincidence and address logic electronics. There is a critical need in PET for a scintillator with a decay time significantly shorter than the 300 ns of BGO, such as LSO or PbSO_4 [86, 87]

Increased effective sensitivity using time-of-flight information

Using time-of-flight information to localize the annihilation along the line between the two coincident detectors has several advantages [12, 15, 18, 23, 88-91]:

- The image can be reconstructed with less statistical noise
- Each annihilation can be placed near the image plane where it occurred

- Angles can be grouped, which reduces the task of data storage and tomographic reconstruction

The sensitivity advantage of time-of-flight information is described by the formula $f = L/(15 \cdot T)$, where L is the size of the emission region and T is the time-of-flight resolution fwhm [92, 93]. For a typical head image, $L = 15$ cm, and a timing resolution $T = 0.2$ ns, the sensitivity advantage is 5.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN INSTRUMENTATION

Phototube/silicon photodiode PET detector module.

The idea of using solid state photodetectors for reading out arrays of small scintillation crystals has been under development for several years [48, 76, 94-102]. Figure 4 shows an expanded view of a proposed PET module [103]. Each optically isolated $3 \times 3 \times 30$ mm BGO crystal is attached to a 25 mm square photomultiplier tube, which provides a timing pulse and energy discrimination, and to a photodiode, which identifies the crystal of interaction. By making the surfaces of the BGO crystals "lossy," it is possible to use the ratio of light detected in the photodiode and photomultiplier tube to determine the depth of interaction in the crystal (Figure 5) [104]. Figure 5 shows the ratio of the photodiode pulse height to the sum of the pulse heights. The detector module was cooled to -20° to reduce electronic noise and increase the BGO signal. The phototube pulses were normalized to minimize the depth dependence of the sum. The errors in the pulse height ratio translate to an uncertainty in the depth coordinate ranging from 5 mm to 8 mm fwhm, which is sufficient to nearly eliminate the radial blurring in a head tomograph with a 60 cm diameter detector ring.

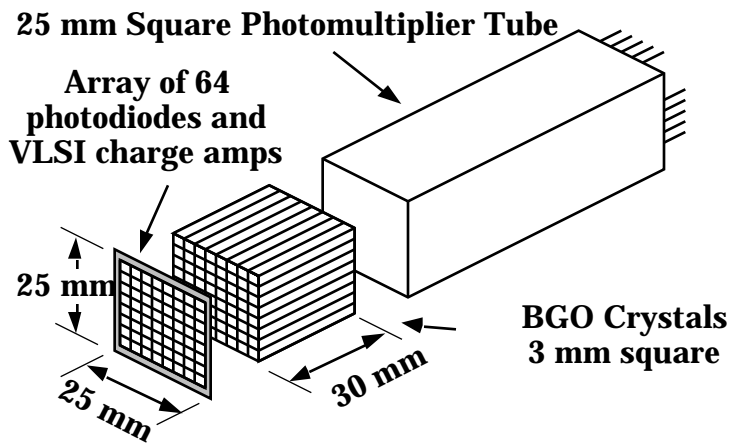


Figure 4.
A PET detector module using an array of silicon photodiodes for crystal identification and a single phototube for timing information. See text for details.

New scintillators.

We suggest that the ideal PET scintillator would have the following properties:

- 1 High atomic number (such as Bi or Pb) and density >6 gm/cm³ for good photoelectric stopping power.

- 2 Ce activator luminescence having $\geq 20,000$ photons per 511 keV (similar to LSO), a decay time of about 30 ns, and a wavelength between 400 and 500 nm. This luminescence is similar to that of Ce-doped LSO and would provide good pulse height resolution and low deadtime.
- 3 Cross luminescence having >500 photons per 511 keV, decay time <0.5 ns, and a convenient wavelength (250-500 nm) for photomultiplier tubes. This would provide good time-of-flight information. For such rapid decay times the phototube response has been the limiting factor, but recent advances have made photomultiplier tubes available with a single photoelectron transit time jitter as low as 200 ps.

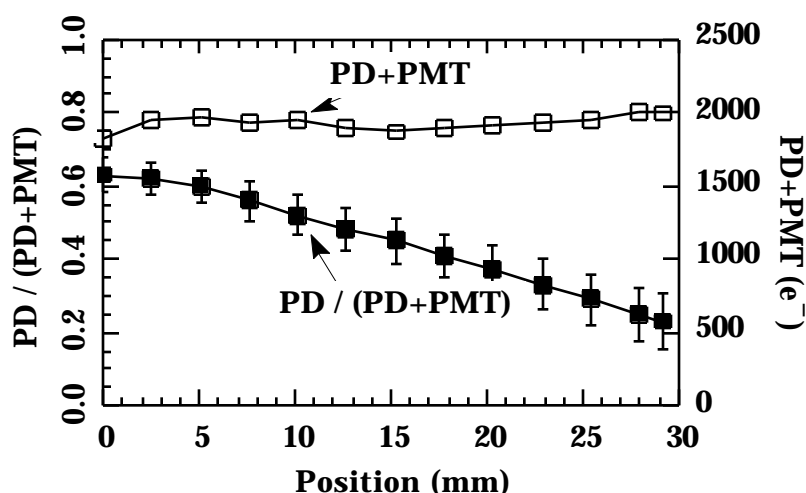


Figure 5.

Centroid of the ratio $PD / (PD+PMT)$ as a function of excitation position. The error bars denote the width (fwhm) of this ratio. Also shown is the center of the 511 keV photopeak observed in the PD+PMT sum.

We have been searching for such scintillators for time-of-flight PET, using both synchrotron x-radiation [105-107] and a newly developed pulsed x-ray system [108, 109]. These techniques were developed for screening compounds in powdered form and measuring their fluorescent decay properties. The light-sensitive x-ray tube used in the pulsed x-ray system is shown in Figure 6. Figure 7 shows an impulse response, determined by coupling a laser diode (103 ps fwhm pulse width) directly to a microchannel phototube (51 ps fwhm single photon response) [110]. We are continuing to work on our pulse discrimination to remove the satellite peak that occurs 350 ps after the main peak.

Figure 8 shows the fluorescent lifetime spectra from a powdered sample of CuI [110], which was previously reported as an ultra-fast scintillator, along with Yb_2O_3 and $BaCl_2$ [105]. The luminosity of powdered CuI is about 7% that of BGO, or about 300 photons per 511 keV. Its fitted decay time of 163 ps would yield an initial intensity of 1.8 photons/511 keV/ps. The comparable number for the fast component of BaF_2 is 1.2 photons/511 keV/ps. The fluorescence of CuI is dominated by a single ultra-fast component, the emission wavelength is convenient (430 nm), and the density is 5.62. This material may become important for the detection of high energy gamma rays, and where high counting rate and excellent

timing resolution are of paramount consideration. The photoelectric stopping power is probably too low for time-of-flight PET, however. This compound is neither an alkali halide nor an alkali-earth halide, which opens the possibility that some lead or bismuth compounds might also have comparably fast fluorescent emissions.

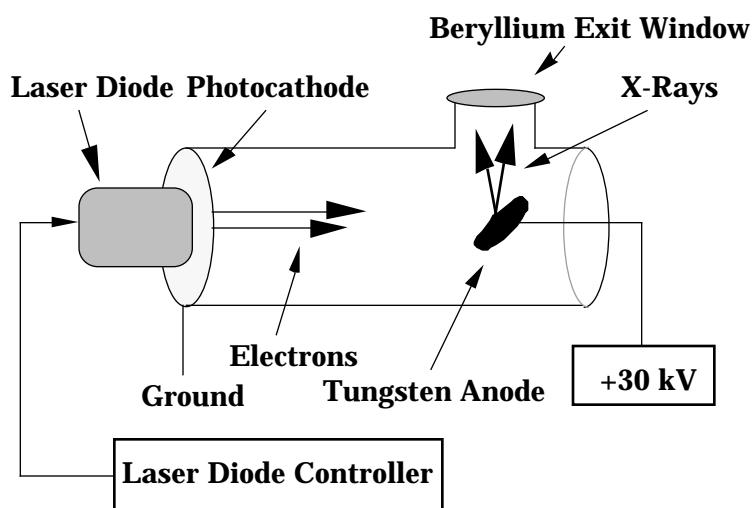


Figure 6.
Pulsed x-ray source. Brief (100 ps) bursts of light from the laser diode generate pulses of photoelectrons. These are accelerated through 30 kV to strike an anode and produce pulses of x-rays.

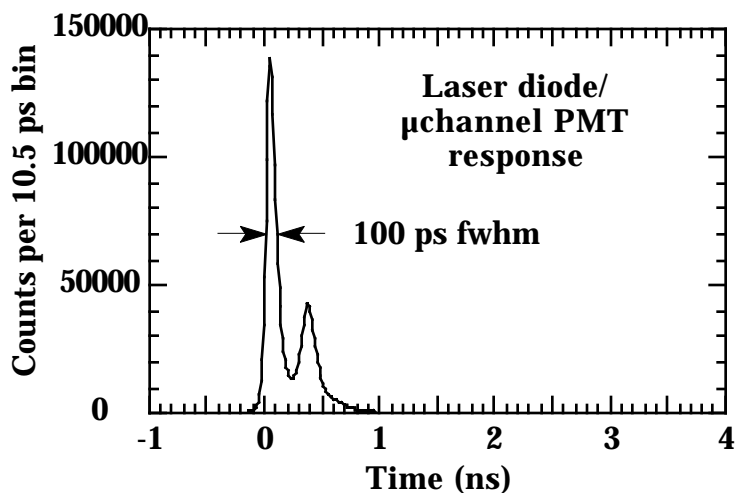


Figure 7.
Impulse response of pulsed x-ray system. Laser diode coupled directly to microchannel phototube.

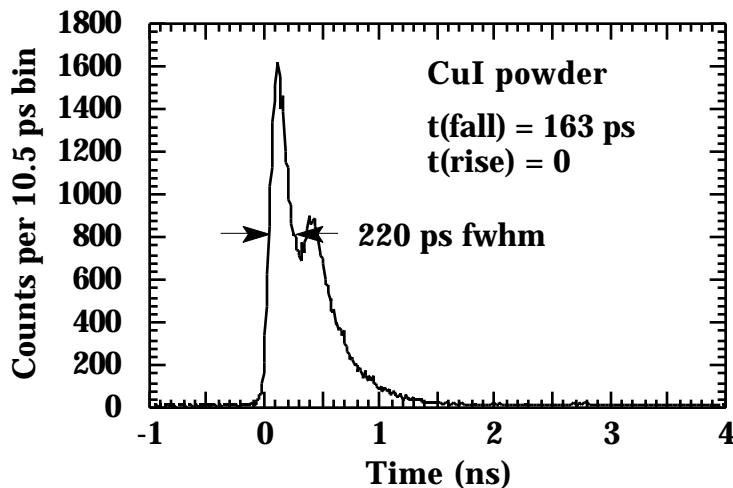


Figure 8.
Fluorescence time
spectrum of CuI powder
measured with pulsed
x-ray system.

CONCLUSIONS

- 1 The ultimate spatial resolution requires small detectors with good photo-electric stopping power, either individual readout or high luminosity, and the ability to measure depth-of-interaction.
- 2 Maximum axial coverage requires a detector design that permits close packing and an acceptable cost per unit area.
- 3 Maximum quantitative accuracy requires good detection efficiency, high spatial resolution, optimum inter-plane shielding, high maximum event rates, and time-of-flight information.
- 4 Improved scintillators, solid-state photodetector arrays, and photomultiplier tubes will make all of the above goals possible.

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